PRINCE BISMARCK'S ILLUSTRIOUS CAREER.

MANY YEARS OF STORM AND STRESS CROWNED WITH THE CREATION OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE.

HIS ANCESTRY, BIRTH AND EDUCATION—EARLY DIPLOMATIC SERVICES—HIS "BLOOD AND IRON" POLICY—THE UNGRATEFUL YOUNG EMPEROR.

Schönhausen, the birthplace of Bismarck, is an ancient village in the district of Magdeburg. Here his ancestors had lived since the middle of the sixteenth century in a massive, quadrangular manor house, shaded by lime and chestnut trees, and built upon the foundation of a castle that was plundered and burned during the Thirty Years' War. The mansion has an air of homely simplicity; the doorway is without steps or porch; in a shield above it are the arms of the Bismarcks; a glimpse within of thick walls, a heavy oaken staircase and ornate ceilings. In the library door are three deep cracks, which were left by Napoleon's soldiers, who in pursuing the lady of the mansion strove to break down the door, which she had locked behind her. There are secret passages leading into the village church close by, and the windows overlook the terraces of the park and the farms belonging to the estate. This was the home of the Bismarcks.

German antiquarians differ as to the origin of the name, and the pedigree of the family cannot be distinctly traced beyond the fourteenth century. The Bismarcks belonged to the Junker class, which enjoyed the privilege of supplying officers to the army, and the name is found in the army muster-rolls for several centuries. One of the Bismarcks was a member of the Guild of Tailors and a municipal magistrate early in the fourteenth century, and represented Stendal in negotiations with princely courts. Like his great descendant, he resented ecclesiastical encroachment, and was excommunicated in consequence of disputes with the clergy in regard to the management of the town schools. Another of the Bismarcks was a leader in the Brandenburg League, headed the patricians against the democratic innovations of the guilds, and conducted important negotiations for the Margrave Ludwig. As a reward for his services the Margrave granted him the castle of Burgstall as a fief, and enabled him to enter the first rank of the nobility of the Alt Mark. There are some points of resemblance between the careers of these two men and that of their great descendant, but these are the only exceptions in a long line of ancestry, for the Bismarcks were country gentlemen, fond of retirement, without talent for intrigue. That the Chancellor may have derived his bluntness of speech from his father is shown by this announcement of his birth:

Schönhausen, April 2, 1815.

I beg to inform all my relatives and friends that my wife was safely delivered yesterday of a healthy boy; and I also beg them to spare me their congratulations.

FERDINAND VON BISMARCK.

BIRTH AND EDUCATION.

Otto Edward Leopold von Bismarck was born at Schönhausen on April 1, 1815. He was the fourth in a family of six children, three of whom died early. His father was a merry, handsome country gentleman, full of wit, fond of the chase, genial in manner. His mother was a refined and cultivated woman, proud, beautiful and ambitious; a queen in society; a great chess-player. She was the brain of the household; the father was its heart. She strove to arouse ambition in her son and predicted his success in diplomacy. The father took most pride in his son's horsemanship.

Otto von Bismarck passed his school years in Berlin, and in 1832 entered the University of Göttingen, where he led a wild, reckless life. For entertaining some boisterous friends with whom he had travelled into the Harz he was summoned before the Dean, but with characteristic assurance put on a dressing-gown and riding-boots and startled the venerable official by rushing into the room with a large bloodhound at his heels. As he was returning to his rooms four young students of the corps of Hanover caught sight of him, and began to laugh at his dress. He remonstrated, high words followed, and each of the four challenged him. During the first three terms of his university life he fought twenty-one duels, and received only one wound. Retiring to the University of Berlin, he attended only two lectures, but succeeded in passing his examination with credit. Among his acquaintances in the university was J. Lothrop Motley, the historian.

THE COUNTRY GENTLEMAN.

After leaving the university, Bismarck practised law and found employment in Government offices; but the restlessness which his university life had induced was a habit which he could not easily outgrow. He travelled in France and Belgium during the summer and autumn, and in the winter society and the Court festivities enticed him away from the cares of official life. One night he accompanied a young lawyer to a Court ball, and was introduced to Prince William. Looking at the stately forms of the two young lawyers, the Prince said, with a smile: "Well! Justice seeks her young advocates according to the standards of the Guards." This was the first meeting between the Emperor William of the future and his Chancellor.

In 1837 the young barrister removed to Potsdam, where he served his year in the army. In 1839 he entered upon the management of the family estates at Kniephof, which his father had relinquished to him and his brother. Under his administration his farms were made remunerative. He was a country squire of the old school—a bold rider, an enthusiastic sportsman, a terrible drinker. Suddenly, when all the world was predicting the moral and pecuniary ruin of "Mad Bismarck," he gave up his wild courses and began to read history and to study theology and philosophy, especially the works of Spinoza. One day at a great personal risk he saved the life of a groom, who had been thrown from a horse while crossing a stream. He was very proud of the achievement, and afterward wore a medal with the inscription: "Für Rettung aus Gefahr." A diplomatist asked the signification of it one day. "It is my way now and then to save a man's life," was the reply.

After his father's death, in 1845, he established himself at Schönhausen and married Fräulein Johanna von Putkammer. His home-life was a joyful experience. Even on the busiest days, during the most wearisome journeys, amid the most engrossing cares of State, he found time to write to his wife a few words of tenderness and affection. "Mad Bismarck" became a model husband. "I can't think how I endured it formerly," he wrote one day to his wife. "If I had to live now as then, without God, without you, without children, I don't know why I should not throw off this life like a dirty shirt; and yet most of my acquaintances are so and live their life."

DEPUTY AND AMBASSADOR.

The country squire was summoned in his thirty-third year from the peaceful seclusion of Schönhausen to serve his Sovereign and Germany. He entered the Chamber of Deputies with a country nobleman's prejudices against democratic innovations. "More liberty within; more power without." That was the cry of Northern Germany in the feverish epoch in which Bismarck came to the front. Simple-minded King William IV, yielding to the warnings of his councillors, summoned in February, 1847, a United Diet, composed of delegates from the Provincial Diets. There was a deep-rooted National sentiment in favor of a larger share of the Government than they had hitherto possessed. The King fancied that he had gratified the desire of the Nation, but when in opening the Diet he announced that no power on earth would ever move him to transform the natural relations between Sovereign and people into a conventional constitutional one, those to whom he had made concession were profoundly disappointed. The very first act of the Diet was to declare that the convocation of the United Estates was not a fulfilment of the promise to grant a National representation made to the people in 1815. A Deputy on the Liberal side had declared that the rising of the people in 1813 had saved the throne, and the Nation had a right to demand a constitution. The Assembly was in ferment. A large, strongly built man, with piercing eyes, ruddy countenance, heavy blond beard and commanding presence ascended the tribune. It was Bismarck's first speech, and it made a great uproar. It was a bitter attack upon liberalism and democracy. The people had risen in 1813 to shake off a foreign yoke, and not a domestic tyranny, and their patriotism had given them no right to demand a constitution. A storm of hisses and cries drowned his voice, but to show his utter contempt for his opponents he ceased speaking, and, drawing a newspaper from his pocket, leaned nonchalantly against the railing and read until order was restored.

THE OBJECT OF LIBERAL HATRED.

From this moment the hatred of liberalism and of the press was concentrated upon Bismarck. He became the champion of the Conservatives. He was the most vehement opponent of liberal measures. When the news arrived of the revolution in Paris, he felt that the signal had been given for the revolt of the Prussian subjects against the King. When a constitution was granted by the King, he protested against it as a dangerous concession, and retired to his country seat. In 1849-50, as a member of the second chamber of the Prussian Diet, he urged the consolidation of the German nationality by the joint action of Prussia and Austria. He opposed the schemes of union and confederation discussed at the Frankfort and Erfurt Parliaments as subversive of the true basis of Prussian power. The revolution had stimulated a desire for union, and he had no sympathy with it. "The army," said he, "cherishes no tri-colored enthusiasm. It is content to be called Prussian. They all know and love the sound of the Prussian hymn, the 'Dessauer' and 'Hohenfriedberg' marches; but I never yet heard a Prussian soldier sing 'Was ist das Deutschen Vaterland?'" In his reactionary zeal he defended the Treaty of Olmutz, and declared that Prussia should subordinate herself to Austria so that they might conquer German democracy together. Strange words from the man who in a few years was to force the Emperor of Austria to renounce all interference in German affairs!

Bismarck's loyalty to the King was illustrated strikingly one day in a beer-cellar. A man at an adjoining table had used an offensive expression respecting a member of the royal family. Bismarck turned to him and thundered forth: "Out of the house! If you are not off when I have drunk this beer I will break this glass on your head!" He drained his glass and brought it down on the offender's head so violently as to fell the man to the floor and smash the glass. In the quietest tone he inquired: "Waiter, what is to pay for the broken glass?"

AT FRANKFORT.

In May, 1851, Bismarck was sent to the Diet of Frankfort as first Secretary of Legation, and three months later he was promoted to the rank of Ambassador. He occupied this post for eight years, and during this period his political views underwent a radical change, which he described in 1866 in an interview with the correspondent of the Paris "Siècle," which has become historical:

"Sixteen years ago I was living as a country gentleman, when the King appointed me the envoy of Prussia at the Frankfort Diet. I had been brought up to admire, I might almost say to worship, Austrian policy. Much time, however, was not needed to dispel my youthful illusions with regard to Austria, and I became her declared opponent. The humiliation of my country, Germany sacrificed to the interests of a foreign nation, a crafty and perfidious line of policy—these were not things calculated to give me satisfaction. I did not know that the future would call upon me to take any important part in public events, but from that period I conceived the idea, which at the present day I am still working out, the idea of withdrawing Germany from Austrian pressure; at any rate, that part of Germany whose tone of thought, religion, manners and interests identify her destinies with those of Prussia—I speak of Northern Germany. In the plan which I brought forward there has been no question of overthrowing thrones, of taking a duchy from one ruler or some petty domain from another. . . . But neither all this nor the opposition which I have had to struggle against in Prussia could prevent my devoting myself heart and soul to the idea of a Northern Germany, constituted in her logical and natural form under the aegis of Prussia."

AT ST. PETERSBURG AND PARIS.

At the outbreak of the Italian war of 1859 he was too pronounced an enemy of Austria to be retained at Frankfort, although his political convictions were shared by the Prussian Court, and he was sent to St. Petersburg. In a letter to the Minister of Foreign Affairs he summed up his Frankfort experience in these significant words:

I see in our federal alliance that Prussia has an infirmity which, sooner or later, we shall have to heal ferro et igni, unless we begin in good time to apply the remedy to it. If the federal alliance were completely dissolved to-day and nothing else put in its place, I believe that even on the basis of the negative acquisition better and more natural relations would be established between Prussia and her German neighbors than those which now exist.

MINISTER AND CHANCELLOR.

In May, 1862, Bismarck was appointed Minister to Paris, and soon after presenting his credentials he went to London and had a long conference with Lord Palmerston in reference to his anti-Austrian policy. At Biarritz he met the French Emperor and made a conquest of Merimée, who, in his letters to the Incognita, evinces appreciation of his extraordinary genius. "He is apparently utterly destitute of soul (gemuth), but all mind." This was Merimée's comment; and then he adds, with one of his abrupt transitions: "He brought with him a wife with the largest feet beyond the Rhine, and a daughter who walks in her mother's footsteps."

On October 8, 1862, Bismarck was summoned by King William to Berlin to take the post of Premier and Minister of Foreign Affairs. It was not the same Bismarck who had led the Conservatives and been a thorn in the side of the Liberals of 1848. He was a King's man still; a born feudalist who believed in kingship and hated social anarchy. But at Frankfort and St. Petersburg he had studied diplomacy under great masters, and his political horizon had widened. A hearty advocate of the King's plan for the reorganization of the army, he realized the need of a firmer consolidation of the defensive powers of Germany, and was not alarmed by the idea of National representation, in a confederation or a "Zoll" Parliament. He was willing when the time was ripe to place Germany on a National basis. The Opposition, who had control of the House of Deputies and who had voted down the increased military budget which the King had demanded, only recognized on the Ministerial bench their old enemy, and so far from unfolding his progressive ideas, he met them at the outset with words like these: "The great questions of the day are not to be decided by speeches and majorities—this was the error of 1848 and 1849—but by iron and blood!" The Chamber solemnly affirmed that all expenditures which were not sanctioned by the National Representatives were unconstitutional. He retorted with the theory that if the Government and the Legislature could not agree upon the budget, the last one voted would remain in force. The Chamber was twice dissolved and the affairs of the Government went on smoothly without its aid. In 1863 Prussia and Russia united for the suppression of the Polish insurrection under the stipulations of a secret convention. The convention was denounced in the Chamber, and Bismarck was forced into explanations and taunted with violating the constitution by governing without a budget. He replied with bitter invective, declaring that the Government could make war with or without the consent of the Chambers. During the long conflict between the Liberals and the Ministry on the subject of the increase and reform of the army, he advocated the reorganization of the system, and took strong ground in favor of strengthening the King's prerogatives.

THE DEGRADATION OF AUSTRIA.

In his foreign policy Bismarck entered at once upon a series of diplomatic intrigues, the ultimate aim of which was the degradation of Austria. Prussia had asserted her right to form a closer political union within the German Confederation, and when Austria had protested, the Prussian Ministry recognized the Kingdom of Italy, and signed a commercial treaty with France to the detriment of Austrian commerce. Bismarck opened negotiations with the Austrian Minister in 1862 with a view to a revision of the Federal relations. Austria was at that time firmly intrenched in the Diet, heartily supported by the Princes, and in alliance with European Powers. By dragging her into the Schleswig-Holstein war, Bismarck at the end of two years isolated her from the Princes and her allies, and lowered her in the eyes of Germany. The war with Denmark, in which the newly organized army fought with the needle-gun, gave Bismarck the prestige of success, and he was made a Prussian Count. Then followed a series of intrigues by which war between Prussia and Austria was fomented. Bismarck determined to annex the Elbe duchies to Prussia, with or without the consent of Austria, and strove to detach from her the minor German States. By the treaty with Denmark, Schleswig, Holstein and Lauenburg had been ceded to Austria and Prussia by right of conquest, the claims of the Federal Diet being ignored. On August 14, 1865, Austria, by the Gastein convention, gained the exclusive occupation of Holstein, and Prussia received the same privilege in Schleswig. The Austrian Governor of Holstein sanctioned early in 1866 the holding of an anti-Prussian meeting at Altona, and this led to a rapid exchange of diplomatic correspondence. Austria began to arm, and at the same time warned the States of Germany against the designs of Prussia. Bismarck strengthened himself at home and abroad. In the Diet he moved for the convocation of a National assembly to be elected by direct and National suffrage. An alliance between Prussia and Italy was concluded, and the army was placed on a war footing. After the failure of the Peace Congress Austria transferred the Schleswig-Holstein question to the Federal Diet, and the Prussian troops marched into Holstein. The Federal Diet took sides with Austria, and ordered the mobilization of the entire Federal army, and Prussia declared that the confederation was dissolved. Bismarck had led Austria from one folly to another, and now turned upon her and crushed her in a single campaign.

THE TIDE OF POPULAR FAVOR TURNS.

When Bismarck left Paris in 1862 to enter the Ministry he said to a Russian lady that before long he would be the most popular man in Prussia—the Cavour of Germany. Four years had passed; in the Chamber he had proclaimed the law of might and had appealed from majorities to iron and blood; in the course of debate he had treated the representatives of the people with arrogant contempt, and he had never manifested any such sympathy for popular rights; he had brought Germany to the edge of a fratricidal war; he was the most unpopular man in his country. A young student turned the tide in his favor. As Bismarck was walking home one afternoon in May, Karl Blind shot at him twice within a few paces without hitting him. The Count seized him by the throat and handed him over to the police after receiving a slight wound. He hurried home, where he was expecting guests, and kissing his wife, said: "My child, I have been shot at, but it is nothing." While they were at dinner the King came to congratulate him on his escape, and the news spread like wildfire through the city. In the next month the Prussian columns were in motion, and in a few weeks the first news of victory was received. Berlin was ablaze with enthusiasm; "Ich bin ein Preusse," echoed in every street; a great throng beset the palace, and a thunder-storm coming on during his speech, Bismarck exclaimed, "The heavens are firing salutes." There was a revolution in public opinion in his favor, and the current grew stronger after the close of the seven days' campaign and the Peace of Prague.

GERMAN UNITY.

During the next four years Bismarck garnered the fruits of Sadowa. He had brought Prussia to the front rank among the nations, and had forced Austria to take a subordinate place in the affairs of Germany. He had dissolved the old German Diet and placed Prussia at the head of a North German Confederation. The Constitution was adopted on April 16, 1867, and Bismarck was appointed Chancellor. The duchies were annexed to Prussia, and to reconcile Europe to the conquest the dethroned princes received a moneyed compensation. In advocating universal suffrage for the new Reichstag he recognized that it was an outcome of the very reform which he had opposed in 1848. But he did not regard it as a triumph of democracy; in introducing the Parliament into the mechanism of the North German Confederation he left it under the control of the Government. In recommending the constitutional scheme to the Imperial Diet, he said: "Let us put Germany into the saddle. She will be able to ride well enough!" Germany was "put into the saddle," and Bismarck was appointed Chancellor of the North German Confederation. Toward the south he advocated a policy of reserve, holding that community of institutions and interests would ultimately draw the states together and complete the union of Germany.

FRENCH DIPLOMATS OUTWITTED.

France was Bismarck's next dupe in diplomacy. After the battle of Sadowa the French Ambassador handed to Bismarck an outline of a secret treaty in which France stipulated for the restoration of the boundaries of 1814. But the Prussian Prime Minister was now a German statesman. He realized that the cession of an inch of German territory to France would rouse all Germany against him. But he was not ready for a war on the Rhine. By all the arts of diplomacy, all the traditional methods of dissimulation and intrigue, France was held in suspense. The right of garrisoning Luxemburg was renounced by Bismarck in 1867 and peace was maintained at small cost. But the neutralization of Luxemburg was a meagre return for all the benefits of the alliance during the war with Austria, and Napoleon III renewed his demands for the annexation of German territory. "The impossibility," wrote Bismarck in a circular dispatch in 1870, "of consenting to any offers of that kind was never a matter of doubt to me; but I did consider it useful, in the interests of peace, to leave the French statesmen in their peculiar delusions, as long as it was possible to do so without giving them any kind of pledge, even of a verbal nature." It was an intricate game of diplomacy, and Bismarck played his cards with studied deliberation. He knew that war was inevitable, but used every effort to delay the rupture, by keeping Germany in ignorance of the demands of the French Government, by adopting a dilatory policy and by conducting an endless series of negotiations. France offered to recognize the unity of Germany and to form an offensive and defensive alliance with her in return for the cession of Luxemburg and Belgium. Bismarck contrived to get a draft of the treaty in 1869 and induced Benedetti to alter the text. When war was finally declared Bismarck unmasked Napoleon's diplomacy and laid bare the French policy of territorial aggrandizement. A coalition between Austria and France had already been foiled by Bismarck's secret treaties with the South German states and his relations with Italy. He now counteracted Napoleon's efforts to form an alliance with neutral Powers and rendered foreign interference harmless. He accompanied the King to the seat of war and remained at his side. In a letter to his wife he gives this account of the meeting with Napoleon:

I found the Emperor waiting in a carriage on the high road with three adjutants and three horsemen beside him. I dismounted, greeted him with as much politeness as in the Tuileries and asked what were his orders. . . . I offered him my quarters in Donchery, a little place in the neighborhood, close to Sedan. On getting near the place he began to be alarmed lest there should be a crowd of people, and asked me if he might alight at a lonely cottage by the roadside. I sent Carl to look at it, and he reported that it was poor and dirty. "N'importe," was N's answer, and I mounted the narrow, rickety staircase with him. In a room ten feet square, with a deal table and two rush-bottomed chairs, we sat for an hour, while the others remained below, a tremendous contrast to our last meeting in 1867 at the Tuileries. Conversation was difficult, as I did not want to touch upon matters which must be painful to one who had been overthrown by God's powerful hand.

THE PEACE OF PARIS.

Bismarck completed the victories of Von Moltke by a treaty of peace worthy of the German arms and his own statecraft. He at once declared to the French Minister: "Strasburg is the key of our house, and we must have it." In annexing a town that was so thoroughly French as Metz he yielded to the same considerations which had governed his policy in the Schleswig question. He gave no attention to the internal affairs of France. "What will be best for the German soldiers and the German people?" was his only thought. He was ready to make peace with any one who would offer him security for the fulfilment of the conditions. He said to Jules Favre:

If it were to our interest to uphold the dynasty of Napoleon, we should re-establish it; the same thing holds good of the Orleans Prince, and also of the Duke of Chambord, who would be very much to our own taste, and especially so to that of the King, who, as may be imagined, holds fast to old traditions. As far as I am concerned, with regard to this I am entirely without prejudice—I am even a republican—and in my opinion no government can be good which does not come from the people, but then each must be adapted to the necessities and traditions.

Bismarck signed the treaty of the surrender of Paris as the Chancellor of the Confederation in the name of the Emperor of Germany. All the States of North and South Germany except Austria had taken part in the war. In November, 1870, Baden, Hesse, Bavaria, Würtemberg and the other States in the South waived their opposition to the consolidation of Germany and were admitted into the Confederation. On December 9, 1870, Bismarck moved in the Reichstag that the German Confederation should take the name of the Empire, and in a few months the Imperial dignity was conferred upon the King, and the Constitution of the Empire was ratified.

WARFARE WITH ROME.

The establishment of the Empire under a Protestant Emperor and the overthrow of the great Catholic Powers wrought a radical change in German Church politics. On the other hand, the proclamation of Papal Infallibility was a menace to the Empire. In a note to Cardinal Antonelli, dated April 23, 1870, Bismarck had expressed apprehension lest the new principles which Rome was threatening to proclaim at the Council should throw the relations of Church and State into confusion. He had also called attention to the peaceable relations existing between Catholics and Protestants in Germany. "It might even be possible," he had added, "that the Government of the Confederation would no longer observe the liberality in dealing with religious matters which it has hitherto made use of in the interests of the Catholic Church." While Bismarck was threatening to secularize religion, the Ultramontanes were opposing the consolidation of North and South Germany. In March, 1871, the Catholic party in the Reichstag in an amendment to the address asked for the protection of the temporal powers of the Pope. The rejection of Cardinal Prince Hohenlohe, whom the German Government had wished to appoint as Minister to the Papal Court, had widened the breach between the Vatican and Berlin, and on June 25, 1871, the Pope threw down the gauntlet in a speech which was generally construed in Germany as indicating a wish for the overthrow of the Empire. Bismarck became convinced that the Ultramontanes were rallying the elements of opposition in the peasantry, in Alsace-Lorraine, in the Polish districts and in the courts of dispossessed princes. The religious excitement in the Catholic districts he ascribed to the influence of the Jesuits, and against them his first blow was aimed. In June, 1872, the Federal Council and the Reichstag adopted a law providing for the suppression of the houses of the Jesuits and affiliated orders. This law was gradually executed toward the close of 1872. The ensuing legislative measures which were aimed against the corporate and public work of the Jesuits were enacted by the Reichstag and partly by the Prussian Chambers. The Redemptorists, Lazarists, Ladies of the Sacred Heart and a few other orders met the same fate. In Prussia the Bishops refused to obey the new laws. The Government enforced them rigorously, fining the Bishops heavily and in many cases withdrawing the support which Catholic institutions were deriving from the State. The Pope wrote to the Emperor and asked for his personal interference in behalf of the Church. The Emperor in reply reminded the Pope that the Bishops had wantonly disturbed the peace of the churches.

THE FALK LAWS.

By assuming control over religious instruction in State schools, the fundamental principle that the servants of the Church are subjects of the Empire and are bound to submit unconditionally to the law was further enforced. The Prussian Chambers now resolved to afford protection to the minor clergy and the laity against the abuse of ecclesiastical discipline and jurisdiction. The Falk laws devolved upon the Governor-General of a province the duty of deciding upon the qualifications of those who were appointed to be Bishops, and of compelling them to swear fealty to the Emperor and obedience to the laws. These laws the Pope condemned, and under his instructions the German prelates and priests refused to conform to the new regulations. A large number of them were prosecuted, fined and imprisoned. Archbishop Ledochowski was one of the first to be convicted. He was imprisoned for contumacy in not paying the fine and was finally released on February 3, 1876, after he had been raised to the Cardinalate. The Bishops renewed their opposition to the Falk laws in 1875, but the clergy offered less strenuous resistance. Many prelates and priests were convicted and banished, and several Catholic seminaries were closed, and their endowments confiscated.

BISMARCK'S OWN EXPLANATION.

Subsequently the Chancellor gave this striking account of his conflict with the Papacy:

I first applied to a bishop, inquiring whether to be a good Catholic it was absolutely necessary to be a Pole or whether to be a German was incompatible with belief in the Roman creed. . . . I went the length of offering to this reverend prelate the Archiepiscopal See of Posen; but the offer was declined on the plea that he did not understand any Polish. Well, Count Ledochowski, who subsequently became Archbishop of Posen, having been brought up in Rome, did not understand a word of Polish either; but he learned it subsequently. Meanwhile the "Polonization" of the German districts in our semi-Polish provinces was vigorously continued, until at last I objected to that sort of thing, and caused the Catholic Department to be done away with. This, amounting to a declaration of war, raised a fearful storm against us in Ultramontane circles. Every effort was made to add to the numbers of the Ultramontane party in Parliament. Some malcontents, former Ministers, Under Secretaries of State, etc., did not scruple to second the efforts of the clerical Opposition. The conflict thus assumed a more extensive range, and the Government were necessitated to have recourse to the Legislature. The May laws were enacted. I contend that, upon the whole, they answer the purpose, and are a strong wall of defence in this inevitable conflict with the Papacy. By virtue of these laws we have recovered the position we gave up in 1850. We have taken back what was our own up to that date. We can now afford to stand upon the defensive and to wait for what is to be. As to the Evangelical Church, it has never thrown any difficulties in the way of the State. It has, on the contrary, supported and strengthened the State. Hence the May laws cannot have been meant to control the freedom of the Protestant clergy; yet as we have no alternative but to enact the same laws for both establishments, Protestantism had to be placed on the same footing with the priests.

WHY HE DID NOT FULLY SUCCEED.

The truth was that Bismarck had entered into a contest which could only be fought out on international ground, and he could not induce any other Power to adopt an ecclesiastical policy similar to his own. He began by addressing a circular to several cabinets, directing their attention to the increased power of the Pope in consequence of the declaration of infallibility, and suggesting that governments before allowing a new Pope to exercise such rights should ascertain whether he would be apt to abuse or strain those powers. But nothing came of this extravagant proposal, and when the successor of Pius IX was elected neither Bismarck nor any one else in Europe thought for a moment of demanding guarantees of any kind. The Italian Government declined to alter the conditions of Papal inviolability, and even Mancini was unable to force his bill for the repression of clerical abuses through the Senate. The Austrian legislation of 1874 was inoperative, and in France the clerical party was too strong to be overthrown. Even in Germany the Chancellor was unable to enlarge the circle of alliance against the Vatican, for the Grand Duchy of Hesse and Baden were the only allies which Prussia won in this ecclesiastical contest. Eventually he had to undo what he had done, abandon the Culturkampf and send an ambassador to the Vatican.

HIS CLOSING YEARS.

The adoption of this policy brought the Chancellor into close relations with the Liberals, the political party that had supported his domestic measures since 1866. His former allies, the Conservatives, were now his bitterest opponents. Religious fanaticism went so far as to inspire a second attempt at assassination, which was made at Kissingen in 1874, when the Chancellor was slightly bruised in the hand by a bullet which crazy Kullman had aimed at his heart. He was irritated and worried at every turn of the course of domestic legislation. The military organization, the criminal code and the coinage were shaped in accordance with his will, but in minor details he was constantly hampered. He has been compared to a man who lays out for himself a fine park "and then finds that he has to pass his life in spudding thistles." This was exasperating work for a man with his peculiar temperament. Three times he tendered his resignation, once in 1872, when the Presidency of the Prussian Cabinet was temporarily assigned to the Minister of War; again, in 1874, when he lost his temper over the partial defeat of the Army bill; and again in 1877 at a European crisis, when he knew that he could not be spared. In Parliament he set one political faction against another and contrived to have his way on fundamental issues. In the council chamber he was suspicious, jealous and domineering. He treated Cabinet officers as clerks rather than colleagues. Count Konigsmark once cast a portfolio at his feet with the sneer: "I am your equal, not your lackey." Count von Arnim, once his intimate friend, was prosecuted and crushed for insubordination. Many a Minister who attempted to obstruct his plans was forced to resign, just as Camphausen did.

THE MASTER OF EUROPE.

While the German Chancellor had a drawn battle with the Vatican and barely held his own in matters of internal policy, in diplomacy he remained the master of Europe. His most brilliant achievement after the peace of Frankfort was the alliance with Austria. During the war with France the hostile intentions of Austria had been restrained by the menaces of Russia. After Sedan friendly relations were renewed, and when Count Andrassy succeeded Count Beust, a hearty adiance was formed between Berlin and Vienna. Subsequently, by effecting a reconciliation between Austria and Russia, Bismarck laid the foundations of the Triple Alliance. After the defeat of the Russians at Plevna he brought the German and Austrian Emperors together at Ischl to strengthen the bonds of the alliance, and when peace was made under the walls of Constantinople he converted the three-Emperor alliance into a two-Emperor compact, opening a career for Austria among the southern Slavs, giving her compensations in Bosnia and Herzegovina for the provinces lost in Italy, and creating a counterpoise to Russia in the Balkan Peninsula. After 1870 Bismarck used his immense diplomatic influence on the side of European peace. He was the master spirit of the Berlin Congress in 1878. He sided with Great Britain in the Egyptian settlement. He uniformly made a beneficent use of his enormous power in diplomacy. He resigned the Chancellorship on March 17, 1890, and retired to private life with a consciousness of having received from the grandson scant recognition of the services rendered to the grandfather.

THE UNGRATEFUL KAISER.

Indeed, the young Emperor seemed to treat him with studied discourtesy, as if to belittle and humiliate him—so far as a pygmy might belittle and humiliate a giant. For several years there was open and by no means silent hostility between them, the Emperor withdrawing Imperial favor from Bismarck's friends, and Bismarck and his friends bitterly criticising, in the press, the public policy of the Emperor. So destructive did this criticism become that it largely caused the fall of the Chancellor who had succeeded Bismarck, and compelled the Emperor himself to sue for peace. On the occasion of Bismarck's eightieth birthday anniversary, April 1, 1895, the Emperor personally visited him at his home, and by almost fulsome attentions strove to atone for years of ungrateful ill-treatment. At the same time all Germany paid such honors to the old statesman as few men in any land or age have ever received—all save the Reichstag, which disgraced itself by refusing him a vote of congratulation on the anniversary. Thereafter the Emperor sought Bismarck's counsel in affairs of state as far as it was possible for the weary veteran to give it, but again appeared to slight him in connection with the ceremonies at the opening of the North Sea and Baltic Canal. He did not seem to wish Bismarck to be present, probably for fear he would detract some popular attention from his own Imperial self. This episode is said to have embittered anew the closing days of the great Chancellor's life.

BISMARCK AS AN ORATOR.

Bismarck once said of himself: "I am no speaker. I am not capable of working upon your feelings or obscuring facts with a play of words." His voice was dry and unsympathetic, though perfectly clear. He had few of the arts of a great orator. In manner he was listless and ungraceful, swinging backward or forward, or twirling a pen in his hand. He frequently stammered, and was sometimes at a painful loss for a word. When irritated his invectives were delivered with terrible power, and he had a habit of clinching a speech by a striking climax at the close. He had great contempt for parliamentary forms, and neither spoke nor wrote like a man of letters; and yet his speeches and letters have been illuminated with sudden flashes of thought, and his most contentious phrases have left a lasting impression on the generation in which he lived. Such mots as "We will not go to Canossa!" "The decision will only come from God, the God of Battles, when He lets fall from His hand the iron dice of destiny"; "Iron and blood are necessary"; "We must put Germany into the saddle"; and "Beati possidentes," have burned their way into the memory of mankind.

BISMARCK AS A MAN.

In social life he was genial, witty, familiar with those whom he knew well. He could tell a story well, and was charming in conversation. There were no traces of the "Mad Bismarck" in the Minister and the Chancellor. He loved his home, and his private life was without reproach. Princess Bismarck has been one of the most devoted wives and mothers. Countess Marie Bismarck (Countess Rantzau), his only daughter, has been the constant companion of his later years. His elder son, Count Herbert, is now a member of the Foreign Office staff. His younger son, Count Wilhelm, has attained some distinction in the Government service. Both sons fought in the war with France, and were decorated with the iron cross. The Chancellor's working hours were formerly after dark, but in his later years neuralgic pains warned him not to turn night into day. Porter and champagne, of which he was once extremely fond, he was compelled to resign, and at his meals only the most digestible dishes were set before him. The greatest diplomatist of the age drew up every morning a memorandum for his chef de cuisine, and if the ménu were not open to exception he would invariably note down his criticism, "trop cuit," "pas tendre," and the like. His customary dress was a plain blue uniform, with a cross hanging from his neck. In the capital he was rarely seen outside of his cosey house in the Wilhelm-strasse and the Foreign Office gardens. At his country seat, Varzin, which he purchased in 1866, his constant companion was a splendid Danish mastiff called Sultan. He grew so stout that he had to give up hoseback-riding. His figure was tall, erect and commanding; his forehead broad and high; his complexion fair and his expression pleasing. In his early years he wore a thick beard, but this gave place to a heavy military mustache, nearly white. The deep lines in his face betrayed years of anxiety and overwork. He was fond of cards; he was a very hard smoker.

Bismarck's statesmanship is to be judged by its fruits, and these are to be garnered in years to come. Jules Favre formed this estimate of him during the peace negotiations of 1870: "I found him to be a political man of business. He seems only to calculate with what is actually before him, his point of view is only directed toward positive and practical results, and he is indifferent to everything that does not lead to useful ends."

(For particulars of the death of Prince Bismarck see First Page.)

BISMARCK IN HUSSAR UNIFORM.
From the painting by Lenbach, owned by H. Walters, Baltimore.
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THE DISCORDANT NINTH.

COLONEL GREEN WILL NOT REPLY TO MAJOR LORIGAN'S CHARGES.

The affairs of the 9th Regiment continue to be discussed in military circles and at the various armories, and Colonel Green is receiving much criticism. Major Lorigan's account of the causes leading to his resignation reflects severely on the commander of the 9th and shows a state of affairs which should not exist. There are doubtless two sides to the story, but Colonel Green will not enter into any controversy. In answer to questions sent to him at his headquarters, at Camp Thomas, Colonel Green said:

"I have nothing whatever to say in answer to Major Lorigan's statement, as I am too busy attending to the affairs of the regiment to be able to devote any time to such a subject."

Other officers of the 9th Regiment who have followed the example of Major Lorigan, and have sent in their resignations, confirm the reports brought to this city as to the bad condition of affairs in the regiment, and it was said at the armory a few days ago that the appointment of a first lieutenant as major over the heads of several competent captains would have a tendency to make matters worse in the 9th Regiment. The officers of the 109th, who watch the situation closely, believe that Colonel Green's command will gain the ill-will of the brigade commander, and because of its condition will get no opportunity to win campaign glories.

The discord in the 9th Regiment seems to have no effect on the new organization, which is growing slowly, but steadily. The 109th Regiment now has eight companies, which average fifty men each. The commanding officer, Major Solomon E. Japha, presided at a meeting which was held at the armory last week, at which an organization was perfected on lines similar to those governing the original command. The new companies have drills nearly every evening, and all the members seem to be deeply interested in the success of the regiment.

HOT WEATHER AT CAMP HAVEN.

Camp Haven, Niantic, Conn., July 30 (Special).—Intense heat has prevailed here throughout the day, 90 degrees in the shade being registered at noon. As a consequence of the sultriness and the recent damp weather a number of men are in the hospital, but no one is seriously ill. At drill to-day some of the men were almost overcome by the heat and medical attention was necessary. All the regular drills were executed, with regimental parade this evening.

The light artillery, Battery A, took a run a few miles outside the camp with the Hotchkiss guns and caissons, in order to break in the new horses. One of the animals, while the men were at mess, walked into Sergeant Twitchell's tent and made himself at home. When discovered he went out without turning around, and tore out the rear of the tent.

The afternoon trains brought many prominent citizens of New-London. Swords were presented to two New-London officers and a pipe and smoking outfit to another. Second Lieutenant Charles P. Kirkland, of Company D, 3d Regiment, formerly an officer in the 7th New-York, received a handsome sword from his friends, the presentation speech being made by Walter Learned, of New-London. Second Lieutenant Carey Congdon, of Company I, and Sergeant-Major R. P. Freeman, jr., were the other officers honored.

Nothing more regarding the contemplated departure of the troops for the South has been learned. The officers are of the opinion that the peace negotiations have caused the War Department to defer the movement of the Connecticut troops.

HEAT AND STORM AT CAMP BLACK.

There was a heavy thunderstorm at Camp Black yesterday afternoon. Although the rain came down in torrents and the wind whistled, no damage was done to the camp. The water formed in small pools, but so dry was the camp that it quickly disappeared. Before the storm there was not a breath of air on Hempstead Plains; after it a refreshing breeze sprang up, and made it much pleasanter for the soldiers.

The morning was torrid, and the men sweltered during the drills. Some of the routine of the camp was cut short, because it was feared that the soldiers would be overcome. As it was, the hospital corps was kept busy attending soldiers who felt faint, but there were no serious prostrations. There are now more than four thousand men in camp, and everything is running smoothly. Many visitors are expected to-day.

Colonel Schuyler has issued an order that visitors will not be permitted to roam about the camp, but can see any soldier they desire by sending for him. This rule will be enforced to-day for the first time.